

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of related literature will be discussed under three headings: (1) theoretical background of task-based learning, (2) listening and speaking skills and (3) related research on task-based learning.

2.1 Theoretical Background of Task-Based Learning

2.1.1 Definitions of Task

Many educators have defined the term task-based learning. Long (1985) gives a non-linguistic definition that “ task means the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between” (p.89). Richards, Platt and Weber (1985) talk about task as an activity or action, which is carried out as the result of understanding language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be considered as successful completion of the task. According to Prabhu (1987), “task is an activity, which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through

some process of thought, and which allows learners to control and regulate that process” (p.24). Breen (1987) also states that:

a task is any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. ‘Task’ is therefore assumed to refer to a range of workplans, which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning- from, the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making. (p.23)

Candlin (1987) declares that:

a task is one of a set of differentiated, sequenceable, problem-posing activities involving learners and teachers in some joint selection from a range of varied cognitive and communicative procedures applied to existing and new knowledge in the collective exploration and pursuance of foreseen or emergent goals within a social milieu. (p.10)

Nunan (1988) indicates that “a task is a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing and interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form” (p.10). Willis (1996) also proposes that:

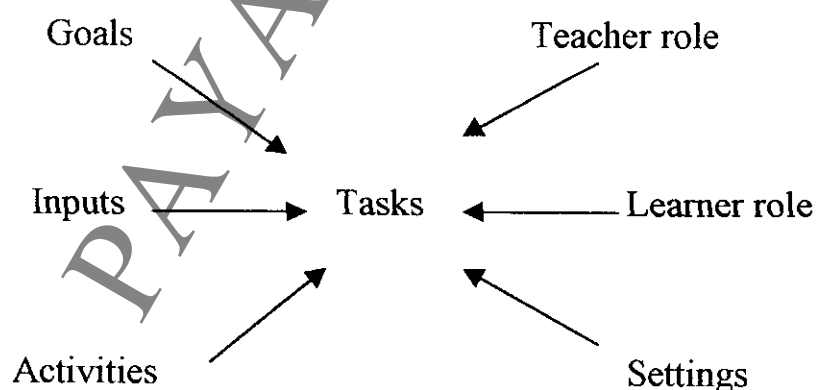
a task is a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome. In other words learners use whatever target language resources they have in order to solve a problem, do a puzzle, play a game or share and compare experiences. (p.53)

The above definitions indicate a common characteristic. They suggest that tasks are concerned with communicative language use. In other words, the learners comprehend, produce and interact in the target language in contexts in which they are focus on meaning rather than form.

2.1.2 Task Components

According to Nunan (1988, p. 48), a task consists of 5 components, which are: goals, inputs, activities, teacher and learner roles, and settings. These components have a relationship as shown in the following figure from Nunan:

Figure 1: A framework for Analysing Communicative Tasks (Nunan, 1988, p.48)



In order to design a TBL syllabus that holds the goal of language teaching for development of communicative skills of the learners, the syllabus designer should be concerned with the task components mentioned above. These components will be analyzed in detail as follows:

2.1.2.1 Goals

Goals provide a point of contact between the task and the broader curriculum. Goals may be related to a range of general outcomes or may directly describe teacher or learner behaviour (Nunan, 1989).

Clark (1987) explains communicative goals as three goal areas.

First, tasks can establish and maintain interpersonal relationships, and through this exchange information, ideas, opinions, attitudes and feelings, and get things done. Secondly, tasks can involve acquiring information from more or less public sources in the target language (e.g. books, magazines, newspapers, brochures, documents, signs, notices, films, television, etc.) and using this information in some way. Finally, tasks can include listening to, reading, enjoying and responding to creative and imaginative uses of the target language (e.g. stories, poems, songs, rhymes, drama) and, for certain learners, creating them themselves. (as cited in Nunan, 1989, p.50)

To conclude, goals define the direction of the task. At the same time goals provide the roles and the relationship of learners and teachers.

2.1.2.2 Input

The language input is a significant component because it helps the learners learn and makes the cognitive process of the learners systematically continuous and precise. Hover (1986) suggests a wide range of sources as input for communicative task such as letters, newspaper extracts, picture stories, business cards, hotel brochures, etc (as cited in Nunan, 1989).

Brosnan, Brown and Hood (1984) discuss the justifications for the use of these real-world materials with TBL. First, the language is natural by simplifying language or altering it for teaching purposes. Next, it offers students the chance to deal with small amounts of print which, contain complete and meaningful messages. Furthermore, it provides students with the opportunity to make use of non-linguistic clues to easily get meaning. Finally, adults need to be able to see the immediate relevance of what they do in the classroom to what they need to do outside it to make a connection obvious.

To sum up, the language input helps the learners learn properly and systematically. It will be great if the learners can learn from the real-world materials.

2.1.2.3 Activities

Activities specify what learners will actually do with the input, which forms the point of departure for the learning task. Prabhu (1987) suggests three principal activity types: information gap, reasoning gap and opinion gap.

Clark (1987) also proposes seven broad communicative activity types. Learners should (1) solve problems through social interaction with others, (2) establish and maintain relationships and discuss topics of interest through the exchange of information, ideas, opinions, attitudes, feelings, experiences and plans, (3) search for specific information for some given purpose, process it, and use it in some way, (4) listen to or read information, process it, and use it in some way, (5) give information in spoken or written form on the basis of personal experience, (6) listen to, read or view a story, poem, feature etc. and perhaps respond to it personally in some way and (7) create an imaginative text.

Pattison (1987) offers seven activity types. These are (1) questions and answers, (2) dialogues and role-plays, (3) matching activities, (4) communication strategies, (5) pictures and picture stories, (6) puzzles and problems, and (7) discussions and decisions.

In conclusion, the activity is what the learners do with the input given using their experiences to accomplish the work through the thinking process while having interaction with others.

2.1.2.4 Teacher and learner roles

‘Role’ refers to the part that learners and teachers are expected to play in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and interpersonal relationships between the participants (Nunan, 1989).

(a) Teacher roles

Richards and Rogers (1986) suggest that the learners’ roles are closely related to the functions and status of the teacher. They point out that some methods are totally teacher dependent, while others view the teacher as a catalyst, consultant or guide. They state that teacher roles are related to the following issues: the types of functions teachers are expected to fulfil; the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place; the degree to which the teacher is responsible for content; and the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners (as cited in Nunan, 1989).

According to Breen and Candlin (1980), “the teacher has three main roles in the communicative classroom. The first is to act as facilitator of the communicative process, the second is to act as a participant, and the third is to act as an observer and learner” (as cited in Nunan, 1989, p.87).

To conclude, some methods are totally teacher directed, while in the communicative classroom the teacher acts as facilitator, consultant or advisor, participant and observer.

(b) Learner roles

Richards and Rogers (1986) also demonstrate the wide variety of learner roles, which are possible in the language class as follows:

(1) the learner is the passive recipient of outside stimuli; (2) the learner is an interactor and negotiator who is capable of giving as well as taking; (3) the learner is a listener and performer who has little control over the content of learning; (4) the learner is involved in a process of personal growth; (5) the learner is involved in a social activity, and the social and interpersonal roles of the learner cannot be divorced from psychological learning processes; (6) and learners must take responsibility for their own learning, developing autonomy and skills in learning how to learn (as cited in Nunan, 1989, p.80).

In conclusion, the learners also take various roles such as interactor, negotiator, listener and performer. In particular, they

need to take responsibility for their own learning becoming autonomous.

2.1.2.5 Settings

“Settings refers to the classroom arrangements specified or implied in the task, and it also requires consideration of whether the task is to be carried out wholly or partly outside the classroom.”

(Nunan, 1989, p.91). Nunan (1985) distinguishes between two different aspects of the learning situation.

He refers to these as mode and environment. Learning mode refers to whether the learner is operating on an individual or group basis. Environment, which is closely connected with mode, refers to where the learning actually takes place. It might be a conventional classroom in a language center, a community class, an industrial or occupational setting, a self-assessing learning center and so on (as cited in Nunan, 1989, p.92-93).

In summary, settings are the places where the learning takes place.

The settings need to be arranged related to the topics or the subjects that the learners have to learn.

2.1.3 Task-Based Learning

Willis (1998, p.1-2) describes a learning and teaching process of TBL that consists of 3 phases, pre-task, task cycle and language focus, as shown below.

Table 1: Task-Based Learning Framework (Willis, 1998, p.1-2)

Pre –Task Phase		
Introduction to topic and task		
Teacher explores the topic with the class, highlights useful words and phrases, and helps learners understand task instructions and prepare. Learners may hear a recording of others doing a similar task, or read part of a text as a lead in to a task.		
Task Cycle		
Task	Planning	Report
Students do the task, in pairs or small groups. Teacher monitors from a distance, encouraging all attempts at communication, not correcting. Since this situation has a “private” feel, students feel free to experiment. Mistakes don’t matter.	Students prepare to report to the whole class (orally or in writing) how they did the task, what they decided or discovered. Since the report stage is public, students will naturally want to be accurate, so the teacher stands by to give language advice.	Some groups present their reports to the class, or exchange written reports, and compare results. Teacher acts as a chairperson, and then comments on the content of the reports.
Language Focus		
Analysis	Practice	
Students examine and then discuss specific features of the text or transcript of the recording. They can enter new words, phrases and patterns in vocabulary books.	Teacher conducts practice of new words, phrases and patterns occurring in the data, either during or after the analysis.	

This framework from Willis (1998) outlines a process by which the learners can do a task systematically and have a goal-oriented activity with a clear purpose. Learners get exposure at the pre-task stage, and a chance to recall things they know. The task cycle gives them speaking and writing exposure with opportunities for students to learn from each other.

2.1.4 Selecting a Good Task

Candlin (1987, p.9-10) offers the following criteria for judging the worth of tasks. Good tasks should:

1. promote attention to meaning, purpose and negotiation.
2. encourage attention to relevant data, draw objectives from the communicative needs of learners.
3. allow for flexible approaches to the tasks, offering different routes, media, modes of participation and procedures.
4. allow for different solutions depending on the skills and strategies drawn on by learners and involve learner contributions, attitudes, and effects.
5. be challenging but not threatening, promote risk-taking, and require input from all learners in terms of knowledge, skills and participation.
6. define a problem to be worked through by learners, centered on the learners but guided by the teacher.
7. involve language use in the solving of the task.
8. allow for co-evaluation by the learner and teacher of the task on the performance of the task.
9. develop the learners' capacities to estimate consequences and repercussions of the task in question.

10. provide opportunities for metacommunication and metacognition (i.e. provide opportunities for learners to talk about communication and about learning).
11. provide opportunities for language practice.
12. promote learner –training for problem-sensing and problem-solving (i.e. identifying and solving problems).
13. promote sharing of information and expertise.
14. provide monitoring and feedback of the learner and of the task
15. heighten learners' consciousness of the process and encourage reflection (i.e. sensitize learners to the learning processes in which they are participating).
16. promote a critical awareness about data and the processes of language learning.
17. ensure cost-effectiveness and a high return on investment (i.e. the effort to master given aspects of the language should be functionally useful, either for communicating beyond the classroom, or in terms of the cognitive and affective development of the learner).

2.1.5 Development of TBL curriculum

Richards (1984) suggests TBL curriculum development should consist of 4 steps. (1) survey needs, (2) develop the objectives to meet the identified needs, (3) select the learning and teaching activities and learning experiences which will be necessary to achieve the purpose and (4) assess.

Long (1985) offers the following procedure for developing a task-based syllabus: (1) conduct a needs analysis to obtain an inventory of target tasks, (2) classify the target tasks into task types, (3) from the

task types, derive pedagogical tasks and (4) select and sequence the pedagogical tasks to form a task syllabus.

Following the theories of both Richard and Long on the development of language learning and teaching curriculum, the needs analysis should assess the learning expectations and knowledge level of the learners. Theories of language curriculum development for TBL stress that setting learning and teaching objectives is only possible in the context of learners' needs.

2.1.6 Advantages of TBL curriculum

Nunan (1989) proposes that tasks appear to be particularly good at training learners to use the L2 to accomplish tasks, and we can assume that this will prepare them well for accomplishing some tasks in the world outside the classroom. Task-based learning may be very effective within an ESP approach in which a major aim is to train learners to perform specific 'real-world' tasks. Tasks could also form part of a general English approach if one is able to identify target tasks, which one would like the learners to be able to perform in the world outside the classroom (as cited in Seedhouse, 1999).

According to Rooney (2000), among the other advantages of using a task-based approach to language teaching is that it allows for a needs analysis, thus allowing course content to be matched to identified student needs. In addition, it is supported by a large body of empirical evidence, thus allowing decisions regarding materials design and methodology to be based on the research findings of classroom-centered language learning. (This distinguishes it from other syllabus types and methods, which have little empirical support). Furthermore, it allows evaluation to be based primarily on task-based criterion-referenced testing. Students can now be evaluated on their ability to perform a task according to a certain criterion rather than on their ability to successfully complete a discrete-point test. Finally, it allows for form-focused instruction that is, a grammar or structure focused instruction.

Krashen (1976) describes a naturalistic L2 as the acquired system that consists of the subconscious knowledge of the L2 grammar. He also describes the instructed L2 as the learned system and conscious knowledge of L2 grammatical rules. There is now considerable evidence, particularly from research studies comparing naturalistic

L2 learners to instructed L2 learners, that form-focused instruction within a communicative context can be beneficial.

TBL instruction does not ignore form-focused instruction as it is used in the pre-task stage and language focus stage of TBL process. In this study, the learners experience both the naturalistic L2 learning and the instructed L2 learning.

According to the strong points mentioned above, TBL promotes learners' use of L2 through performing tasks that will be beneficial not only in the classroom but also outside in real world settings. The tasks assigned are according to the learners' needs and the learners can be evaluated on their overall ability to complete tasks by peer and instructor evaluations using the established criteria, not only by discrete written tests.

2.2 Listening and Speaking Skills

2.2.1 Definitions of listening and speaking skills

2.2.1.1 Listening skills

Listening is the activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something we hear. To listen successfully to spoken language, we need to be able to work out what the speakers mean

when they use particular words in particular ways on particular occasions, and not simply to understand the words themselves (Underwood, 1993).

Similarly, Rivers (1980) gives the meaning of listening to a foreign language as the creative skills in understanding the sounds he hears. The listener will bring in the statements he has heard including intonation and stress to interpret the meaning.

In addition, Bacon (1989) states that listening is the combination of knowledge of sound system, vocabulary, syntax, and understanding the relationship of the statement to previous experiences of the listener.

So, listening skill refers to the process of receiving a message in terms of the knowledge of sound, vocabularies, structures and the experiences of the listeners to understand the meaning of the speakers.

2.2.1.2 Speaking skills

Speaking is the expressing of ideas; understanding and feeling understood by others. Many people have defined the term speaking. According to Valette and Disick (1972) “speaking means expressing

oneself intelligibly and making his ideas and desires known to others” (p.153).

Auksaranukraw (1989) states that speaking ability means the ability of producing language and the process of conveying meaning. The speakers express their ideas and their feelings as a language code or verbal language understood by others. Besides the stress of words and the intonation of the statement, the speakers express their goals in speaking through what they want to say, with whom they speak, where they speak, how they speak and so on. Moreover, the speaker needs to speak fluently and accurately.

Byrne (1987) also proposes the idea that speaking skill is a two-way process related to the receiving message skills of the listeners and the producing message skills of the speakers. The speakers will be encoders expressing their needs while the listeners will be decoders, using their knowledge of the language system such as the stress and intonation in the sentences, including understanding any accompanying gestures.

Thus, speaking skill is the expression by means of speaking in order to communicate correctly the needs of a speaker. In order for speaking to be effective and successful, the speaker must be

concerned with pronunciation, selecting the correct expressions to use with language functions, which are appropriate in the social milieu and, the appropriate use of gestures.

To conclude, listening and speaking refer to oral communication between people. Each person has their purpose and conveys their meaning. Listening and speaking skills cannot be separated from one another. When teaching listening and speaking skills for communication, the speaker and listener need to use all English abilities such as vocabulary, language structure, interpretation, guessing what the speaker will say in the future and understanding the implicit meaning of the statement that the speaker did not say directly.

Listening and speaking skills are a two-way process of communication. They go together and cannot be separated from one another. This study will focus on both listening and speaking skills aimed at improving the listening and speaking skills of hotel service personnel. The learners will be able to talk about their own job to others in order to be able to have two-way communication with foreign guests.

2.2.2 Levels of listening and speaking abilities

Considering the listening and speaking skills, Valette and Disick (1972) divide the levels of listening and speaking abilities into 5 levels as follows:

First, at the mechanical stage, the students perceive differences between their native language and the foreign language. They can discriminate among two or more foreign language utterances based on the sounds they hear but not necessarily understand the meaning. At the same time they can imitate the native models of foreign language. They reproduce native pronunciation, rhythm, stress, juncture, elision and liaison. They are capable of correctly reading aloud material they have memorized without understanding precisely.

Secondly, at the knowledge stage, the students understand the meaning of words and sentences they have been taught. They can carry out familiar commands, match utterances with appropriate pictures, and select an English equivalent of a sentence they hear. Besides this, the students can answer familiar questions according to what they have been taught. They can pronounce appropriate grammatical forms in familiar contexts. They can read aloud familiar

material with accuracy. At this stage, understanding of the material is needed to produce the information requested.

At the third stage, transfer, the students understand recombination of the structure and vocabulary they have been taught. They can answer true-false questions, select appropriate completions to statements or answers to questions, and comprehend passages consisting of several sentences. At the same time the students can vary their responses according to instructions. They apply their knowledge of grammar to the creation of new utterances.

Fourthly, at the communication stage, the students understand instructions and explanations given in the foreign language. The students can understand the general meaning of passages containing unfamiliar vocabulary items. At the highest development of this behaviour, the students can understand with ease rapid native speech heard in plays or films and on radio or TV programs. Besides, the students can express themselves intelligibly and can make their ideas and desires known to others. At the lower end of this stage, the students' speech may be quite halting but is nevertheless comprehensible. At the upper end of this stage, the students may be bilingual. Fluency, comprehensibility, ease of expression, and

effectiveness of communication are more important evaluation criteria than strict grammatical accuracy.

At the last stage, criticism, the students can analyze the manner in which a message has been expressed. They can distinguish between various standards of language and perceive geographical regions or social classes represented in speech. In addition, they can comprehend implicit as well as explicit meanings of what they hear. At the same time the students can express their ideas through the manner in which they express them. They are capable of using style, tone, and choice of language appropriate to the subject of their discourse and to the people they are addressing.

2.2.3 Listening and speaking assessment

To assess listening and speaking abilities, the authentic assessment will be conducted. Phuwipadawat (2001) states that authentic assessment is a way of assessing the behavior and the needed skills of learners in real world situations and it is a way of assessing performance, process and products. To meet the needs of each learner, authentic assessment provides a chance for them to participate in assessing and organizing the learning process by

themselves. Thus, this kind of assessment will help develop continuous learning. Authentic assessment may be done by observation, note taking and portfolio.

Wiggins (1989) distributes the characteristics of authentic assessment into 4 features as follows:

First is the performance in the field. The activity which must be related to real settings, challenges complex thinking skills or uses meta-cognition skills and concerns the differences of people in the aspects of learning styles, aptitudes and interests of the learners in order to use these in developing their listening and speaking abilities.

Secondly, the criteria used must be essential to the performance but should not be too specific to a certain case. The criteria must be disclosed and accepted in the real world of the learners and the others. The criteria are the guides for learning, teaching and assessment that reflect clearly the goal and studying process. As a result, the teacher takes the role of coach and the learners take the role of performers and self-evaluators.

Thirdly, self-assessment aims to help the learners develop their self-assessment ability by comparing themselves with the public standard to improve and change their work direction and to initiate an

assessment of their own progress in various aspects. Thus self-assessment is a self-directed process that results from the motivation. Making the improvement process better, clearer and more appropriate is the core of authentic assessment. Besides this, self-assessment provides a chance for the beginner learners to perceive and receive the complement of self-development.

Finally, presentation makes learning deeper since the learners express their feelings about what they know when presenting them for others to understand. This ensures that the learners have learned these topics.

In this study, the assessment consists of 4 characteristics, following Wiggins, which are performance in the field, criteria, self-assessment and presentation. This study assesses the performance in the field of the learners; that is, they are asked to do tasks related to their daily work in the hotel. They have to use integrated skills or meta-cognition skills in creating their own tasks. Moreover, tasks available for them are prepared according to their individual needs. In addition, the criteria used for assessing their performances will let the learners know at the beginning of the class where they need to improve. Then they have a chance to correct their own mistakes in

the language focus stage. Finally, by giving presentations on their tasks they will learn what they know.

Furthermore, Ninkaew (2000) states that observation is a way of assessing the language learners' performance. Ninkaew describes two kinds of observation. First, participant observation is a method of the observation in which the observer participates in the place, situation or the activity in order to collect data. It is a natural way of observation, the learners will not know that they are observed. Second, non-participant observation is a method of observation in which the observer does not participate in the place, situation or the activity in order to collect data. The observer is a stranger. The learners know that they are being observed.

In this study, the researcher uses participant observation in assessing the learners' performance in a role-play focusing on their English listening and speaking abilities. During data collection the observer participates in the place, situation or the activity. The researcher and the learners themselves will be observers as they use the classroom observation form.

Besides this, the researcher and the external observers use observation in assessing the effectiveness of the lessons. Then, at the

end of the course the researcher interviews the learners as a direct assessment of the improvement in their listening and speaking abilities after they have been taught through TBL activities and also to assess the effectiveness of the lessons.

Heaton (1988, p. 100) offers a rubric for listening and speaking assessment, which consists of 3 criteria: accuracy, fluency and comprehensibility as follows in Table 2 below:

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Table 2: Criteria for Listening and Speaking Assessment**(Heaton,1988, p.100)**

Accuracy	Fluency	Comprehensibility
6 Pronunciation is only very slightly influenced by the mother-tongue. Two or three minor grammatical and lexical errors.	slightly influenced by the effort with a fairly wide range of expression. Searches for words occasionally but only one or two unnatural pauses.	Easy for the listener to understand the speaker's intention and general meaning. Very few interruptions or clarifications required.
5 Pronunciation is slightly influenced by the mother-tongue. A few minor grammatical and lexical errors but most utterances are correct.	Has to make an effort at times to search for words. Nevertheless smooth delivery on the whole and only a few unnatural pauses.	The speaker's intention and general meaning are fairly clear. A few interruptions by the listener for the sake of clarification are necessary.
4. Pronunciation is still moderately influenced by the mother-tongue but no serious phonological errors. A few grammatical and lexical errors but only one or two major errors causing confusion. Fair range of expression.	Although he has to make an effort and search for words, there are not too many unnatural pauses. Fairly smooth delivery mostly. Occasionally fragmentary but succeeds in conveying the general meaning.	Most of what the speaker says is easy to follow. His intention is always clear but several interruptions are necessary to help him to convey the message or to seek clarification.
3 Pronunciation is influenced by the mother-tongue but only a few serious phonological errors. Several grammatical and lexical errors, some of which cause confusion.	Has to make an effort for much of the time. Often has to search for the desired meaning. Rather halting delivery and fragmentary. Range of expression often limited	The listener can understand a lot of what is said, but he must constantly seek clarification. Cannot understand many of the speaker's more complex or longer sentences.
2 Pronunciation is seriously influenced by the mother-tongue with errors causing a breakdown in communication. Many 'basic' grammatical and lexical errors.	Long pauses while he searches for the desired meaning. Frequently fragmentary and halting delivery. Almost gives up making the effort at times. Limited range of expression.	Only small bits (usually short sentences and phrases) can be understood – and then with considerable effort by someone who is used to listening to the speakers.
1. Serious pronunciation errors as well as many 'basic' grammatical and lexical errors. No evidence of having mastered any of the language skills and areas practiced in the course.	Full of long and unnatural pauses. Very halting and fragmentary delivery. At times gives up making the effort. Very limited range of expression.	Hardly anything of what is said can be understood. Even when the listener makes a great effort or interrupts, the speaker is unable to clarify anything he seems to have said.

Adapting this rubric offered by Heaton, in this study the researcher set a rubric for assessing listening and speaking abilities as follows:

Table: 3 Rubric for Assessing Listening and Speaking Abilities

Level of points	Accuracy
5	Very few grammatical and lexical errors. Most pronunciation is correct.
4	Some grammatical and lexical errors exist. Very few pronunciation errors appear.
3	A moderate amount of grammatical and lexical errors. A few pronunciations errors.
2	Many grammatical, lexical and pronunciation errors.
1	Serious grammatical and lexical errors. Pronunciation is hardly correct.

Level of points	Fluency
5	Generally, speaks smoothly. A few pauses in searching for appropriate words.
4	Speaks rather smooth most of the time, although has some pauses in searching for appropriate words and expressions.
3	Sometimes speaks rather haltingly. Frequently hesitates with long pauses while searching for the appropriate words and expressions.
2	Frequently speaks haltingly. Very long pauses while searching for the appropriate words and expressions.
1	Very halting and fragmentary delivery and can hardly communicate since cannot find appropriate words or expressions.

Level of points	Comprehensibility
5	General meaning is clear and understandable. The listener does not ask for clarifications.
4	General meaning is mostly understandable, although sometimes the listener asks for clarifications.
3	Meaning is fairly clear. But sometimes the listener still asks for clarifications.
2	Meaning is understandable a little. Frequently the listener has to ask for clarifications.
1	It cannot be understood. The listener has to ask for clarifications nearly every time.

2.3 Related research on task-based learning

There are several studies on TBL done by both Thai and foreign researchers. The following studies were chosen to discuss because they are relevant to this research.

Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) studied focused communication tasks and second language acquisition. A small-scale study provided some evidence to suggest that pushing learners to produce more accurate output, by the teacher making requests for clarification, contributed to acquisition. It also demonstrated how this might be achieved by using focused communication tasks as part of classroom pedagogy.

Wattanamara (1996) studied the TBL approach in teaching English for communication to air force military students in their second year at the air force military academy. The sample groups were taught through TBL, the learners worked in small groups and in pairs but a control group was taught according to the normal teaching methods doing individual work. The findings revealed that using English ability for communication in integrated skills and separated skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing for learners taught through TBL was better than the control group.

Foster (1999) showed that giving learners time to plan before they began a task significantly increased the complexity, accuracy, and fluency of the language they used, and that these effected increase in relation to the cognitive difficulty of the task.

Ahmed (1996) studied the applications of the task-based approach to designing a syllabus for an oral communication skills course in an academic setting. It discussed the goals of the course within the relevant institutional contexts, outlined the principles of the task-based design, described and classified the tasks, and provided a descriptive account of the organization and sequencing of the tasks in the course schedule. It argued that such an approach had much potential in second language curriculum development.

Deeprom (1997) developed task-based activities for business English 1 for thirty-nine students at the vocational level. The study found that all activities were effective. After utilizing the 16 task-based activities, the scores of those thirty-nine students showed an increased command of English. And the results indicated that the goals set for the activities were very clear; the inputs of the activities were authentic and the students could utilize them very well when participating. The activities used in the tasks were applicable for

communication in everyday life; the students' roles designed or assigned in the tasks provided them equal chances of using their language repertoire. The settings stimulated the students to use their language repertoire a great deal when participating in group activities.

Seedhouse (1999) studied a holistic analysis and evaluation of the interaction produced by tasks in the classroom. This study attempted to characterise task-based interaction as a variety, discussed its pedagogical and interactional advantages and disadvantage, and considered what kinds of learning it might be promoting. It was found for any particular group of learners what balance and mixture of varieties of L2 classroom interaction might be most suitable within their curriculum. It could promote task-based interaction as one element within the mixture.

Muranoi (2000) examined the impact of interaction enhancement (IE) on the learning of English articles. IE was a treatment that guides learners to focus on form by providing interactional modifications and led learners to produce modified outputs within a problem-solving task (strategic interaction). Two different IE treatments were employed: IE plus formal debriefing (IEF), and IE

plus meaning-focused debriefing (IEM). Outcomes of these treatments were compared with the effects of non-enhanced interaction in a quasi-experimental study involving 91 Japanese EFL learners. Progress was measured with a pretest and two post-tests, yielding these major findings: (1) IE had positive effects on the learning of English articles; (2) the IEF treatment had a greater impact than the IEM treatment.

Newton (2001) studied options for vocabulary learning through communication tasks. The results suggested not only that rich language use resulted from negotiating new words, but that the meaning of many of these words was retained in the days after the task performance. The paper concluded by considering a number of post-task options for reinforcing vocabulary learning.

Sricharoen (2001) developed Agricultural Technology English Lesson 1 through TBL for first-year diploma in vocational education students. The results revealed that the six lessons of ATEL 1 were very effective and suitable for the students' knowledge and abilities. The students' opinions about the classroom atmosphere were positive in all factors.

Tepsuriwong and Pichaipattasopon (2002) studied creative thinking: an integration of thinking activities in task-based learning. From observation and students' evaluation, the students had positive attitudes towards this task. They explained that the task encouraged them to think creatively and they tried to use English to communicate their thoughts. The task was thus meaningful and also interesting as well as challenging. The students enjoyed learning as they had the freedom to think. Furthermore, they liked drawing and exercising their imagination in designing an invention.

Out of the studies cited above, it was found that TBL could be applied in learning and teaching with the learners in ESP. The learners showed high achievement in speaking skill. Hence, the researcher developed the English lessons to improve the listening and speaking abilities of hotel service personnel through TBL.